DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 245 415 EA 016 973

AUTHOR Silver, Paula F.; Moyle, Colin R. J.
TITLE The Impact of Intensive Inservice Programs on Educational Leaders and Their Organizations.
PUB DATE 84
NOTE 29p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA, April 23-27, 1984).
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Change; Affective Measures; Attitude Change; Attitude Measures; Behavior Change; Cognitive Measurement; *Developmental Programs; *Educational Improvement; Foreign Countries; *Inservice Education; Psychomotor Skills; Role Perception; Tables (Data)
IDENTIFIERS *Australia

ABSTRACT

Administrator development programs are multiplying, yet little is known of their effects. If instruction is meant to produce cognitive, affective, and psychomotor changes in participants, inservice programs should duplicate that process--and, by extension, improve schools. Two instruments in each of four areas (cognitive , affective, psychomotor, and organizational) were used to study five 1980-81 Melbourne, Australia, programs. Attitudes toward self and others and professional orientation scales, for instance, measured affective changes, while organizational health and structural properties questionnaires examined schools. Pretest and posttest score results show cognitive changes in leaders' role conceptions. Leaders also gained in self-confidence and appreciation of others, and in altered attitudes toward professionalism. Leaders' skill and behavior patterns as perceived by subordinates improved, whereas schools improved in organizational health and became less bureaucratic. Analyses of data by programs yielded similar findings. This study of program effectiveness has limitations, yet holds specific lessons for those concerned with profesisonal development. (KS)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED245415

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Paula Silver

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

THE IMPACT OF INTENSIVE INSERVICE PROGRAMS ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AND THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

by

Paula F. Silver,
University of Illinois - Urbana

and

Colin R. J. Moyle,
Institute of Educational Administration,
Australia

Prepared for presentation at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 1984. Accepted for publication in Planning and Changing, Fall, 1984. Not to be cited without authors' permission.

EA 016 973

THE IMPACT OF INTENSIVE INSERVICE PROGRAMS ON EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AND THEIR ORGANIZATIONS

Inservice professional development programs for educational administrators are being offered with increasing frequency and at increasing expense in many nations throughout the world. In the United States, as in many other countries, there are two sources of increasing interest in continuing education for administrators. First is the need for renewal due to reduced mobility within the field of education. Second is a body of research findings that principals are of major importance with respect to high levels of student achievement. In response to the press for professional development opportunities, universities, school districts, professional associations, state and national departments of education, and foundations offer administrative inservice programs on a regular basis (see, for example, Johnson et al., 1982).

Like so many facets of education systems, inservice programs have proliferated without benefit of coordination, knowledge utilization, or evaluation. Most continuing education programs for school admin-

ministrators are in the form of short workshops focusing on topics purportedly needed by participants and "evaluated" by means of survey-opinionnaires completed by participants immediately following the workshops. The workshops are usually unrelated to each other, unsequenced, conducted without reference to research about pedagogy, and oriented toward topical content rather than skills. As Hunt (1978) remarked with regard to teacher inservice programs, they are more entertainment than education, and bad entertainment at that. The same might be said of many administrator inservice programs.

More to the point, we know little about the effects of continuing education programs on the school leaders who participate in them, and virtually nothing about the effects of such programs on the schools administered by the participants. So-called evaluations of inservice programs typically take the form of an opinionnaire completed by participants at the conclusion of the program (Griffin, 1983b), a practice having notable shortcomings. For one, the survey responses often reflect an euphoria that quickly dissipates after the workshop experience (Boschee & Hein, 1980). Further, survey responses are more likely to reflect participants' degrees of enjoyment than their actual amount of learning. Finally, survey responses reveal little about the extent of cognitive learning or about attitudinal and behavioral changes following the experience. In brief, almost nothing is known about the effects of inservice professional develop-

ment on program participants and the organizations they lead.

The purpose of the study reported here, therefore, was to determine what effects a series of inservice programs for school administrators has on participating school principals and their schools.

Conceptual Framework

The seminal work of Benjamin Bloom and his colleagues (1956) suggests that all instructional programs are intended to bring about changes in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor characteristics of the learners. This would be equally true of instructional programs directed toward adults and those oriented toward children. Cognitive changes include not only alterations in the students' comprehension of particular subject matter but increases in the complexity of the learner's thought processes as well (Bents & Howey, 1981; Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983; Silver & Hess, 1981). Affective changes refer to shifts in the learner's attitudes, feelings, or emotional orientations toward the contents of the instructional program. And psychomotor changes are increases in skill, dexterity, speed, discernment, or other facets of behavior. If instructional programs are intended to foster changes in these domains of experience, then effective programs would be those that successfully alter participants' knowledge or conceptual abilities, feelings, and behaviors in the intended directions.

When instructional programs are directed toward people in positions of leadership in organizations, an additional level of interest emerges; namely, the promotion of changes in the organizations headed by the program participants. To the extent that leaders are

influential figures in organizations, one can anticipate that changes in the cognitive, affective and behavioral characteristics of leaders will result in changes in their organizations. Thus one can assume that professional development programs for school administrators have the indirect purpose of improving schools, and that effective professional development programs will have some favorable impact on the schools administered by the program participants.

The study reported here was conceptualized to incorporate all the elements noted, as in Figure 1. Specifically, the inservice program

[Insert Figure 1 about here.]

was viewed as having the direct purpose of inducing cognitive, affective, and psychomotor changes in the participants and the indirect purpose of inducing changes in the schools headed by the program participants.

The intensive inservice programs offered by the Institute of Educational Administration (IEA) in Melbourne provide a natural laboratory for studying the effects of professional development projects. Since university-based graduate programs for educational administrators are of relatively recent origin and not readily accessible in all parts of Australia, and since graduate coursework is not a prerequisite for assuming administrative positions there, many of the educational leaders in the IEA programs have not had formal courses in educational administration. Thus the effects of the programs can be studied in relative isolation from the possible effects of university preservice training. In addition, the length and scope of the IEA

programs as well as their structure and processes make these programs uniquely worthy of study. Therefore, a brief description of the professional development programs conducted by the Institute of Educational Administration is provided.

IEA Professional Development Programs

Approximately five times each year between 30 and 40 selected educational administrators, primarily but not exclusively from the State of Victoria, are granted one-month leave of absence with pay to reside at the IEA facility while participating in a month-long professional development experience (Moyle, 1980). Although the majority of participants are school principals, a few senior teachers, senior-level administrators, and other educators are included in each cohort. With the exception of a mid-program break of one weekend, the participants dine together, engage in entertainment together, and undertake the inservice experience together for four weeks. They are divided into three subgroups or "syndicates" for some of the activities and for forging relatively intimate support networks. In addition, interaction across these major subgroups is extensive, and varied special-interest groups are formed according to the requirements of the teaching consultants and participants.

The first half of each program is conducted primarily by one external consultant who provides a preplanned sequence of learning experiences involving lectures, discussions, readings, group projects, and activities of diverse types. On the major consultants' days off, other external consultants offer one- or two-day workshops on topics closely related to those treated by the major consultants. The second

half of each program is conducted by a variety of external consultants in the form of one-, two-, or three-day programs designed to reinforce, elaborate, and complement the contents of the first two weeks.

The professional staff of the Institute includes the Director, a Deputy Director, and Executive Secretary and an audio-visual specialist as well as three experienced educational administrators who serve one-year terms as Syndicate Leaders. During programs the Syndicate Leaders serve as resource persons for consultants and participants, facilitators, small-group leaders, and general overseers of the comfort and wellbeing of the participants. Adequate clerical support is also available.

The programs are so multifaceted that communicating their nature in full is not possible. However, several scholars in the area of continuing education have enumerated the elements essential for effective professional development programs (e.g., Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983; O'Neal, Estes, & Castleberry, 1983) that can serve as an organizing framework for depicting the IEA programs. Table 1 provides a listing of the elements associated with effective inservice programs and a brief description of aspects of the IEA programs that are pertinent to each element. It should be noted that the pro-

[Insert Table 1 about here.]

gram elements listed were generally linked by logic and opinionnaire responses to effectiveness. Of interest in future research, however, would be an examination of the extent to which each element (and the

balance among them) contributes to the measurable effectiveness of inservice programs.

This, then, is the nature of the inservice programs that served as the focus of inquiry. Our intent was to assess the degree to which these programs have impact on the cognitive, affective and psychomotor characteristics of their participants and on the school units of which these participants are leaders. Because of the breadth of the IEA programs and their inclusion of varied areas of content, our study treated educational leadership in general rather than specific bodies of knowledge.

Research Methods

The study follows what might best be called a pretest-posttest descriptive design. It is not, strictly speaking, experimental since it lacks both systematic variation of treatments and control groups. Nevertheless, the design yields implications of causality that can be tested further by means of experimental research.

Sample

Five IEA programs offered during the 1980-1981 years were selected for intensive study. Four months before each of these programs the prospective participants who were heads of schools or larger educational units were contacted by phone and invited to participate in the study. Of the 86 individuals contacted, 80 agreed to participate. Three months before the beginning of each program, those who had agreed to participate were sent packets of questionnaires for completion by themselves and ten staff members in their organizations. We received a total of 856 usable responses from the pre-IEA mailings,

including 80 from principals and 780 from their subordinate staff members. The averages were 16 principals per IEA program and 9 staff members per school.

At least three months after the end of each of the IEA programs, those participants who had provided pretest data were sent packets of questionnaires for completion by themselves and ten randomly selected subordinate staff members. From this mailing (and follow-up calls) we received usable responses from 69 principals and 590 staff members (or averages of 14 principals per program and 8.5 staff members per school). Since the study entailed paired pre and post scores, the sample for this segment of the study was limited to the 69 participants who sent both pretest and posttest responses.

In addition, the IEA participants voluntarily completed pretest and posttest questionnaires at the Institute facility on the first and last days of their respective programs. For these segments of the study, the sample numbered 160 participants, an average of 32 per program.

Instruments

As noted earlier, we were interested in cognitive, affective, and psychomotor changes in the IEA participants themselves as well as changes in the educational units (predominantly schools) headed by these participants between the pretest and the posttest periods. We selected two measures in each of these four areas, as described in brief below.

Cognitive (Mental) Measures

1. The Paragraph Completion Test (PCT) designed by Schroder, Driver &

Streufert (1967) was used to measure leaders' conceptual complexity. Respondents typically write a paragraph about each of five stimulus words or phrases within a 100-second time limit. We designed alternate forms for pretest-posttest purposes, each consisting of five stimulus stems. The IEA participants completed the PCT forms on the first and last days of their respective programs, and the responses were scored by J. O. Phares, an expert in the interpretation of PCT responses (Phares & Schroder, 1969).

2. The Leader Behavioral Orientation Scale was used to measure leaders' perceptions of the educational leadership role. This questionnaire was a modified version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII (LBDQ-12) developed by Ralph Stogdill (1963). The modifications were threefold: we used shortened forms (30 items for the pretest, 30 items for the posttest) with items representing all twelve scales of the original measure; we developed alternate forms comprised of different items for the pre- and post-tests; we created a forced-choice measure of the respondent's perceptions of the importance (not the frequency) of each item such that at least five items had to be rated "very unimportant." The IEA participants completed this questionnaire both three months before and three months after their respective programs, and the responses were scored for scale averages as well as for major factor scores (System-orientation and Person-orientation) of the participants.

Affective (Attitudinal) Measures

1. The Attitudes Toward Self and Others Scale (Berger, 1952) was used

to measure participants' feelings about themselves (e.g., their degrees of self-confidence) and about other people (i.e., their appreciation of uniqueness and diversity in others). We created alternate forms of the original 64-item Likert-type scales by selecting 30 of the items (16 Self; 14 Other) for the pretest and 30 different items (16 Self; 14 Other) for the posttest. IEA participants completed the questionnaire at the beginning and end of their respective programs, and responses were scored by summing the Acceptantc of Self item scores and the Acceptance of Others item scores separately.

2. The Professional Orientation Scale (Corwin, 1965) was used to assess participants' attitudes regarding aspects of the profession of educational administration. As for the other measures, we created alternate forms of this questionnaire by drawing eight of the 16 Likert-type items for the pretest and using the remaining eight items for the posttest. All four of the original scales were represented in each form, and an additional two items were appended to each form. Program participants completed the questionnaire three months before and three months after their respective programs. Scale scores were computed by averaging the scale item scores, and total scores were computed by averaging the scale scores.

Psychomotor (Behavioral) Measures

1. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII (LBDQ-12), completed by between three and five staff members in each IEA participant's school (Stogdill, 1969), was used to measure lead-

ers' observed behavior patterns. We developed alternate forms of the LBDQ-12 that were analogous to the forms completed by the participants themselves, except that in this case the respondents reported the frequency (not the importance) of each type of behavior on a five-point Likert-type scale. School staff members completed the questionnaires three months before and three months after their superior attended her/his IEA program, and responses were scored by scales as well as major factors. These scores were aggregated by school units.

2. The Principals Performance Description Survey or PPDS (Ellett & Payne, circa 1978), completed by between three and five persons other than those who completed the modified LBDQ-12 forms, was used to measure participants' leadership skills as perceived by staff members. We again created alternate forms, this time by drawing 17 of the five-point Likert-type items for the pretest (with the original four subscales represented) and selecting 17 different items for the posttest. School staff members completed these forms three months before and three months after their leaders' IEA programs, and the ratings were scored both by scales and for overall effectiveness (totals) as well as aggregated by schools.

Organizational Measures

1. The Organizational Health Scale was developed for this study to measure the general efficacy of each IEA participant's school as perceived by its staff members. This measure was based on the

work of Matthew Miles (1965), who identified ten facets of organizations that are analogous to facets of a personality. A healthy organization would be one in which all ten facets are usually in evidence. We converted each of the ten facets of organizational health described by Miles into a 5-point rating scale ranging from poor to excellent. Because of the newness of this measure, we used the same form during the pretest and the posttest cycles, and we had all subordinate respondents (between 6 and 10 in each school) complete the questionnaire. A general measure of organizational health was derived from the sum of scale ratings aggregated by schools.

2. The Structural Properties Questionnaire (Bishop & George, 1973) was used to measure each school's degree of bureaucratization as regards five aspects of school structure. This 24-item variant of the original 65-item measure was completed by between three and five school staff members at least three months before and three months after their leader's IEA program. The same form was used for the pre-IEA and post-IEA data collection cycles; however, respondents were not necessarily the same individuals both times.

The relatively complex data collection schedule might be clarified with reference to Table 2, which displays the measures and their forms, respondents, and time frames. All of the instruments used, ex-

[Insert Table 2 about here.]

cept the organizational health measure, have adequate reliabilities, as reported in the references cited. The organizational health measure is characterized by a high degree of internal consistency, as

evidenced by correlations of between .50 and .80 between item and total scores and a correlation of .83 between odd-numbered and even-numbered items. Test-retest reliability is indicated by the correlation of .70 between the pretest and the posttest scores for the total sample.

Analysis

To determine whether there were differences between the pretest and the posttest periods, we regarded the IEA participant as the unit of analysis, recorded pretest and posttest scores, and conducted t-tests for significance of differences in all pairs of scores. Significance levels of $p<.05$ generally were regarded as indicative of real changes in the IEA participants or their organizations.

Findings

The results of the analyses can best be summarized by means of Table 3, which shows the comparisons between pretest and posttest scores for all the major variables. The discussion of these results

[Insert Table 3 about here]

entails a somewhat more microscopic analysis, including consideration of the subscales comprising the major variables.

Cognitive Changes

While there was no significant change in the IEA participants' levels of conceptual complexity, there were significant changes in

their conceptions of the educational leadership role.

The System Orientation factor of the LBDQ-12 (see Brown, 1967) comprises six subscales: Production Emphasis, Initiating Structure, Role Assumption, Superior Orientation, Representation, and Persuasiveness. We found a considerable increase in the participants' attributions of importance to the Production Emphasis dimension ($p<.001$) and significant decreases in their conceptions of the importance of four of the other facets of System Orientation ($p<.001$ in all instances). Thus the significant decrease in overall System Orientation scores masks an important increase in the perceived importance of Production Emphasis behaviors.

The Person Orientation factor of the LBDQ-12 also consists of six subscales: Tolerance of Freedom, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Consideration, Demand Reconciliation, Predictive Accuracy, and Integration. Although the total Person Orientation score did not change appreciably, there was a significant decrease in participants' attributions of importance for the Demand Reconciliation ($p<.001$) and Integration ($p<.01$) behaviors and an increase in the perceived importance of Predictive accuracy ($p<.05$).

It appears that the IEA programs had an effect on the participating leaders' cognitions with respect to their conceptions of the educational leadership role.

Affective Changes

Two of the three measures of participants' attitudes revealed statistically significant changes between the pretest and the posttest periods. The participants' Acceptance of Self average score in-

creased considerably, and their Acceptance of Others scores increased even more. This indicates that the participating leaders gained in self-confidence and became more appreciative of the diversity and unique merits of other people.

Although the participants' Professional Orientation total score did not change significantly, closer analysis reveals changes in aspects of the participants' attitudes regarding professionalism. The Professional Orientation Scale includes five subscales (one of which was added to the original measure): Autonomy, Professional Standards, Specialized Training, Decision Making, and Professional Behavior. Scores on three of these changed significantly. The IEA participants were less concerned with their autonomy ($p<.01$) and less concerned with their unilateral decision making ($p<.01$) following their respective programs. On the other hand, they were considerably more favorably oriented toward specialized training following their IEA programs ($p<.001$). Thus it appears that there were attitudinal changes related to professionalism that were masked by the analysis of total scores alone.

Psychomotor Changes

It is clear from Table [illegible] that there were changes in the IEA participants' behavior patterns as perceived by staff members in their school units. Less obvious but equally true is that there also were changes in the leaders' skills as perceived by subordinates.

The subscales comprising the System Orientation factor were listed earlier. Of these, there were marked increases in the leaders' Production Emphasis ($p<.001$) and Representation ($p<.01$) behaviors. In

addition, there were decreases in their Role Assumption ($p<.05$) and Superior Orientation ($p<.001$) behaviors. The notable increase in total System-oriented behaviors is attributable primarily to a major increase in Production Emphasis average scores, from 2.60 to 3.46. It is worth noting, also, that this increase corresponds with the increase in the leaders' attributions of importance to the Production Emphasis dimension of leadership.

The participants' Person-oriented behaviors, as perceived by staff members, became significantly less frequent following the IEA experiences. Of the subscales comprising the Person Orientation factor (listed earlier), the most marked decrease was in the leaders' Tolerance of Freedom behaviors ($p<.001$). There was also a decrease in the leaders' Demand Reconciliation behaviors ($p<.05$) and an increase in their Predictive Accuracy ($p<.05$), both of which are congruent with the leaders' own attributions.

Because of the interesting parallels between the leaders' attributions and their behavior patterns as perceived by others, we have displayed the attributional and perceptual results of the LBDQ-12 analyses in tabular form as Table 4. This Table demonstrates that

[Insert Table 4 about here.]

there was a general tendency for changes in the leaders' attitudes regarding the importance of particular behaviors to be congruent with changes in their behavior patterns as perceived by other people.

Although the leaders' total rated effectiveness scores did not change significantly, there were some findings worth noting with re-

gard to this measure. There are four subscales associated with leadership effectiveness according to the Principals Performance Description Survey: Curriculum and Instruction, Staff Personnel, Policies and Operations, and Fiscal Management. Of these, the Fiscal Management ratings increased significantly ($p<.05$). Also worth noting is that the average scores on all the subscales increased between pretest and posttest periods, suggesting there were slight but real improvements in the participants' leadership skills as perceived by staff members.

Organizational Changes

Even though the effects of professional development programs on organizational characteristics must be indirect at best, there were measurable changes in the school units of the IEA participants. Organizational Health scores did not change to a statistically significant extent. However, the average scores on all ten scales of the organizational health measure increased slightly. Since the items on this measure were the same for the pretest and the posttest, and there were between six and ten informants per school unit, and the scores were consistantly higher after the IEA programs, there seem to have been slight but real improvements in the organizational health of the participants' schools.

There was a measurable change in the degrees of bureaucratization of the schools in the sample. Five aspects of organizational structure are associated with the Structural Properties Questionnaire: Centralization, Autonomy, Formalization, Rule Boundedness, and Professional Knowledge. Of these, the scores for Rule Boundedness de-

creased significantly ($p<.05$), and there was a consistent pattern of lower bureaucratization scores for all the other scales. This consistency, along with the fact that the same items were used for the pretest and the posttest measure, suggests that the participants' school units were actually slightly less bureaucratic after the leaders' IEA experiences.

In sum, the results of the comparisons indicate that there were measurable changes not only in the program participants' characteristics but in the characteristics of the organizationa they led as well. Analyses of the data by programs, as opposed to those for the sample as a whole, yielded similar findings with respect to all the significant differences. That is, for all five cohorts of IEA participants the results were similar, which adds strength to the conclusion that the IEA programs had impact on the cognitive, affective and psychomotor characteristics of the participants as well as on the organizations headed by these participants.

Discussion

This study provides strong and convincing evidence that inservice professional development programs for educational administrators can have measurable impact both on the participants in the programs and on the schools administered by the participants. Changes were found in all three domains of participant characteristics -- cognitive, affective, and psychomotor -- as well as in structural features of the sample schools. Thus it seems safe to conclude that inservice programs can have beneficial effects. But do they typically have such effects?

Several limits to the generalizability of these findings must be considered before one jumps to the conclusion that inservice programs "work." First, as noted earlier, the programs offered by the Institute of Educational Administration are distinctive not only for their duration, scope, and variety of teaching/learning approaches but for their residential nature and individualized attention. Second, the participants were all selected using several criteria including their commitment to education, their perceived effectiveness, and their willingness to leave family, friends, and work for a fairly extended period. Third, the IEA program was, for many of the participants, a first exposure to the wealth of literature and thought about educational administration as a profession distinctly differentiated from the field of teaching. And finally, there was follow-up in the form of printed and telephone communications and group meetings (as well as data collection) that helped to sustain the learnings derived from the programs. The significant changes in leaders and their organizations found in this study might be attributable to some or all of these distinctive elements.

It should also be noted that there may well have been changes that were not measured in this study. We did not measure, for example, participants' substantive knowledge about educational administration nor their personality profiles; we did not assess the participants' aspirations nor the climates of their schools. Countless other aspects of the participants and their organizations may have changed, and probably did, without our awareness. By the same token, the measurable changes we recorded might have been caused by some factor(s) other than the inservice programs, though the fact that

similar changes were found when the sample was partitioned by programs makes this possibility unlikely.

Despite the limitations of this study, it holds some lessons for educators concerned with continuing professional development. It demonstrates, first, that the assessment of inservice program effectiveness by methods other than gathering the opinions of participants at the end of the program is feasible. Specifically, it demonstrates that intended cognitive, affective and psychomotor outcomes can be measured and that these measurement results can be used to gauge program effectiveness. The study suggests, second, that there are aspects of the inservice programs themselves that render them more or less successful in fostering the intended changes in participants' cognitions, affects, and skills. Finally, the study provides strong support for the potential benefits of leadership training programs, since it demonstrates that both leaders and their organizations can be affected by such programs.

In view of the expenses in terms of time, energy and money incurred by inservice programs for educational leaders, those who sponsor such programs have an obligation to assess the programs' effectiveness by methods more defensible than those typically used. If it should be found that beneficial outcomes are only obtained with programs as intensive and expensive as those described here, the investment is clearly warranted in the interest of better schools for children and teachers.

REFERENCES

Bents, R. H.; & Howey, K. R. Staff development -- Change in the individual. In B. Dillon-Peterson (Ed.) Staff development/Organization development. Alexandria, Va.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981, 11-36.

Berger, E. M. The relation between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others. Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1952, 47, 778-782.

Bishop, L. K.; & George, J. R. Organizational structure: A factor analysis of structural characteristics of public elementary and secondary schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1973, 9, 66-80.

Bloom, B. S. A taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. New York: David McKay, 1956.

Boschee, F.; & Hein, D. D. How effective is inservice education? Phi Delta Kappan, 1980, 61, 427.

Brown, A. F. Reactions to leadership. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1967, 3, 62-73.

Corwin, R. G. Professional persons in public organizations. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1965, 1, 1-22.

Ellett, C. D.; & Payne, D. A. Principal Performance Description Survey, Principal form. Athens: University of Georgia, Project R. O. M. E., n.d. (circa 1978).

Griffin, G. A. Toward a conceptual framework for staff development. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.) Staff development. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983, 228-250.

Hunt, D. In-service training as persons-in-interaction. Theory Into Practice, 1978, 17 (Autumn), 239-244.

Johnson, J.; & Assoc. NIE directory of inservice training programs for principals. Washington, D. C.: National Institute of Education, 1982.

Miles, M. B. Planned change and organizational health: Figure and ground. Change processes in the public schools. Eugene: University of Oregon, Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1965, 11-34.

Moyle, C. R. J. Comparison of administrator training programs in selected countries. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, 1980.

O'Neal, L.; Estes, D. M.; & Castleberry, J. The state-of-the-art in administrator inservice: What are the best practices? San Antonio, Texas: Education Service Center, Region 20, 1983.

Phares, J. O.; & Schroder, H. M. Structural scoring manual for Paragraph Completion Test. Unpublished manuscript, Princeton University, 1969 (mimeo).

Schroder, H. M.; Driver, M. J.; & Streufert, S. Human information processing. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967.

Silver, P. F.; & Hess, R. The value of theory coursework in enhancing students' conceptual complexity. Journal of Educational Administration, 1981, 19, 11-20.

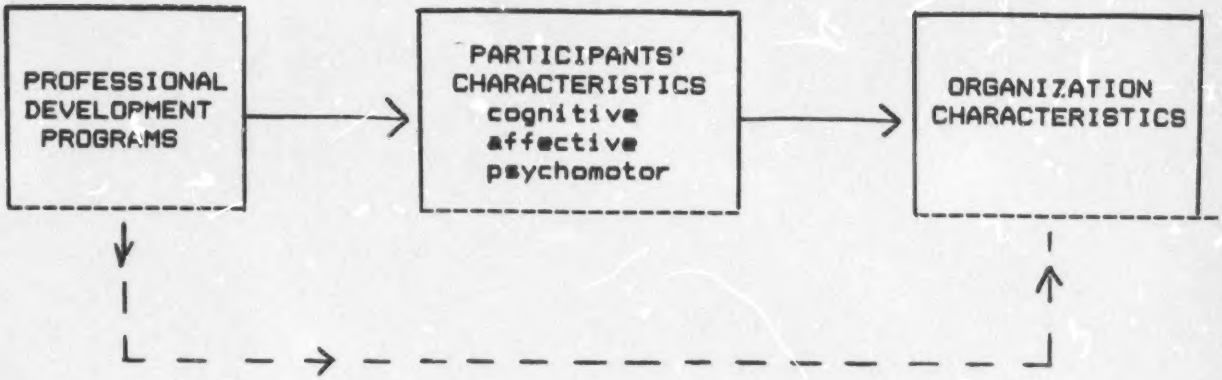
Sprinthall, N. A.; & Thies-Sprinthall, L. The teacher as an adult learner. In G. A. Griffin (Ed.) Staff development. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983, 13-35.

Stogdill, R. M. Manual for the LBDQ-Form 12: An experimental revision. Columbus: Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, 1963 (mimeo).

---- Validity of leader behavior descriptions. Personnel psychology, 1969, 22, 153-158.

Insert (see page 4)

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework for the IEA Study



Insert (see page 6)

Table 1. Features of the IEA Programs Studied

Features of Effective Inservice Programs	Relevant IEA Features
collaboration between participants and program sponsors	such collaboration rare
learning needs identified by participants	Expectations specified on application forms; some individualized instruction during programs
programs offered near participants' school sites	Programs offered at fixed location
intrinsic and extrinsic rewards	Intrinsic: self-explanatory Extrinsic: certificates; badges; status; increased promotion prospects
modeling (by experts) of skills and concepts	Extensive modeling by full-time professional staff and 20 or more visiting consultants
utilization of participants' talents and abilities	Independent studies; role-play exercises; subgroup leadership by participants; participant presentations
synthesis of content and adaptation to diverse situations	Encouraged through case analyses, site visits, and guided group discussions
individualized learning activities	Original case studies written and analyzed; private counseling; and small-group discussions of work-site situations
significant and challenging role-taking experiences	Numerous and varied role-play experiences throughout programs
careful and continuous guided reflection	Private time for reading and thinking is ample; self-analysis and reciprocal feedback are encouraged
continuity, with logical sequencing	IEA staff coordinate all presentations and activities in advance
personal support as well as challenge	Syndicate group structure provides support; consultants and readings provide challenge
assessment of cognitive development	Not formally undertaken, except in the study reported here

Insert (see page 12)

Table 2. Data Collection Schedule for IEA Study

Instrument	Forms	Respondents	Time	Site
COGNITIVE				
Para. Compl. Test	alt.	particip's	first and last days	IEA
Ldr. Beh. Orient'n	alt.	particip's	3 mo's pre & 3 mo's post	work site
AFFECTIVE				
Attitudes re Self and Others	alt.	particip's	first and last days	IEA
Prof. Orientation	alt.	particip's	3 mo's pre & 3 mo's post	work site
PSYCHOMOTOR				
LBDQ-12	alt.	subord's	3 mo's pre and post	work site
Princ. Perf. Desc. Questionnaire	alt.	subord's	3 mo's pre and post	work site
ORGANIZATIONAL				
Org. Health Scale	same	subord's	3 mo's pre and post	work site
Structural Prop. Questionnaire	same	subord's	3 mo's pre and post	work site

Insert (see page 13)

Table 3. Comparisons Between Pretest and Posttest Scores for Major Variables

Variable	Pre-Mean	Post-Mean	Diff.	Sig-
COGNITIVE				
Para. Completion Test	5.96	5.79	-.17	n.s.
Ldrs. System Orient's	3.03	2.90	-.13	.001
Ldrs. Person Orient's	3.97	3.99	+.02	n.s.
AFFECTIVE				
Acceptance of Self	3.88	4.18	+.30	.001
Acceptance of Others	3.64	4.08	+.44	.001
Professional Orient'n	3.52	3.60	+.08	n.s.
PSYCHOMOTOR				
Perceived System Or'n	3.62	3.78	+.16	.001
Perceived Person Or'n	3.71	3.60	-.11	.001
Perceived Effectiveness	3.76	3.86	+.10	n.s.
ORGANIZATIONAL				
Organizational Health	3.50	3.57	+.17	n.s.
Bureaucratization	2.32	2.25	-.07	n.s.

Insert (see page 16)

Table 4. Comparisons Between Leaders' Attributions and Subordinates' Perceptions Regarding Participants' Leadership Behavior for Pretest and Posttest Cycles

Ldr. Behavior Variables	ATTRIBUTIONS pre	post	t-	PERCEPTIONS pre	post	t-
Prod. Emph.	1.87	3.01	7.28#	2.60	3.46	13.71#
Init. Struc.	3.78	3.86	--	3.92	3.96	--
Role Assump.	3.18	2.57	-8.19#	3.79	3.70	-2.23
Super. Orient.	2 71	2.35	-6.68#	3.79	3.68	-3.52#
Representation	3.43	2.93	-6.01#	4/01	4.24	3.09*
Persuasiveness	3.20	2.65	-6.78#	3.68	3.65	--
SYSTEM-OR'N	3.03	2.90	-5.32#	3.62	3.78	4.01#
Tol/Freedom	3.90	3.94	--	4.06	3.46	-12.27#
Tol/Uncert'y	3.17	3.12	--	3.49	3.36	--
Consideration	4.30	4.20	--	3.98	4.01	--
Dem. Recon.	4.39	4.25	-3.90#	3.22	3.09	-2.11
Pred. Accur.	3.67	4.20	2.45	3.74	3.88	2.25
Integration	4.42	4.24	-3.30*	3.71	3.79	--
PERSON OR'N	3.97	3.99	--	3.70	3.60	-3.43#

* = significant beyond .01
# = significant beyond .001